

Last, as Kuratko pointed out, the LC ω -3 PUFA-enriched foods such as bread, milk, and yogurt also contribute to LC ω -3 PUFA intake, but this 7-item FFQ does not include questions related to the LC ω -3 PUFA-enriched foods.

The Meyer PUFA FFQ validation generated validity co-efficients of 0.9 and 0.7 for DHA and EPA, respectively, when using the methods of triads, 3-d weighed food records, and erythrocyte (or plasma) levels of DHA and EPA [8]. These validity co-efficients are higher than the current 7-item FFQ, which showed correlations of 0.5 when compared with 14-d weighed food records, as well as when compared with erythrocyte (or plasma) levels. This shows that a more detailed PUFA FFQ that bases its LC ω -3 PUFA calculations on analytical data of foods [8] is better than this 7-item FFQ. However, a limitation with the Meyer PUFA FFQ is that it is based on Australian foods. A similar version has recently been validated for New Zealand foods [9], and perhaps it is necessary to develop and validate country-specific PUFA FFQs.

In summary, this 7-item FFQ captures most LC ω -3 PUFA intakes, but it lacks the contribution of red meat and LC ω -3 PUFA-enriched foods. This 7-item FFQ will provide results in terms of mg of DHA and EPA intakes, but this is misleading, as these DHA and EPA values are not accurate given the previous limitations outlined. Perhaps the calculations should provide the answers as a range rather than exact mg values.

Should researchers wish to use a FFQ to determine valid actual values of LC ω -3 PUFA, then they should choose a tailored FFQ designed to capture the intakes of LC ω -3 PUFA, such as the recently validated Meyer PUFA FFQ [8,10]. If the researcher had to choose between the 7-item FFQ presented here or the validated Meyer PUFA FFQ [8,10], the decision should depend on whether the researcher wants valid and actual LC ω -3 PUFA intake data, where the calculations are based on analytical data, or a shorter 7-item FFQ that provides a ballpark figure of LC ω -3 PUFA intakes.

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Re: Vitamin D: Health panacea or false prophet?

To the Editor:

Michael Glade questions whether the observational evidence that vitamin D reduces the risk for many types of disease may be due to factors other than a lack of exposure to vitamin D [1]. He suggests pausing to reflect on the merits of increasing serum 25 hydroxyvitamin D (25[OH]D) concentrations at the population level until the science is better understood and the potential pitfalls evaluated.

Consider cancer. Much of the strongest evidence that vitamin D from solar ultraviolet-B (UVB) irradiance reduces risk for cancer comes from single-country ecological studies from Australia, China, France, Japan, Spain, and the United States [2], with support from observational and laboratory studies including findings on cancer survival rates [3]. Additionally, an analysis of cancer incidence with respect to occupation in Nordic countries yielded findings similar to those from ecological studies [4]. The scientific way to determine whether solar UVB and vitamin D can be considered causal in reducing risk for cancer is through application of Hill's criteria for causality in a biological system [5]. The primary criteria are strength of association, consistent finding in different populations, biological gradient, plausibility (e.g., mechanisms), experiment (e.g., randomized controlled trial), and analogy. These criteria have been applied to cancer and found generally satisfied for breast and colorectal cancer and, likely, for several other types of cancer [6,7].

There is no question that vitamin D plays a critical role in modulating the immune system both to prevent autoimmune diseases and to enhance fighting infectious diseases including tuberculosis and influenza. Inactive T and B lymphocytes have no vitamin D receptor but when activated they develop a vitamin D receptor and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ has been demonstrated to have dramatic influence on T-cell function and decreasing B-cell immunoglobulin synthesis thereby improving immune health. These activities may help explain the association with vitamin D deficiency and increased risk for autoimmune diseases including multiple sclerosis, type 1 diabetes mellitus, and rheumatoid arthritis [8]. Macrophages after ingesting an infectious agent such as tuberculosis immediately begin producing 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ which in turn is responsible for increasing the expression of cathelicidin, a defensin protein responsible for enhanced innate immunity to fight infectious diseases. This is the likely explanation for why cod liver oil, solariums or being placed at altitudes above 5000 feet,

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all of which enhance the vitamin D status, were found to be effective measures in treating tuberculosis more than 100 years ago. Recent evidence suggests that improvement in vitamin D status reduces risk for upper respiratory tract infections including influenza A infection by more than 40% [9].

The comment about whether a single “biochemical marker can provide meaningful insight into the health status of an individual” overlooks the fact that skin pigmentation varies globally according to solar UV doses; dark enough to reduce the risk for free radical production and DNA damage and folate destruction, yet light enough to permit vitamin D production [10].

As to the higher prevalence of low serum 25(OH)D concentrations among the oldest old, a little known fact is that the prevalence of people with apolipoprotein epsilon4 (ApoE4) decreases with advanced age [11] and ApoE4 is associated with higher serum 25(OH)D concentrations [12].

There is strong evidence that vitamin D reduces the risk for other diseases that are important causes of premature death: cardiovascular disease [13], and type 2 diabetes mellitus [14]. Based on serum 25(OH)D concentration–health outcome relations, it was estimated that if population mean serum 25(OH)D concentrations were raised from 54 nmol/L to 110 nmol/L in developed countries, mortality rates would decrease by 15% to 20% and life expectancy would increase by 2 y [15]. The demonstrated benefits of increasing serum 25(OH)D concentrations greatly outweigh any hypothetical risks in doing so.

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Vitamin D: Let's just ask the right questions. A response to Grant and Holick

To the Editor:

The letter from Drs. Grant and Holick, submitted in response to my review [1], presents a well-reasoned argument supporting the “health panacea” hypothesis. However, they may have missed both the import of the paper as well as an opportunity. The “take-home” message was that epidemiology, as with all research, is able to answer only those questions that are asked. It has not addressed, at least not yet, the issues that are raised in my review about the specific potential downsides or unsuspected pitfalls of universally increasing vitamin D intake from youth into old age. In this context, their argument fails to reconcile the current conflicts between population-based health policies and the individualization of nutritional advice and care.

The potential roles of the Klotho system in altering human longevity deserve better treatment than was afforded the “nonskeletal” benefits of increased vitamin D intake during the past century. In the 21st century, nutrition science must probe beyond the conceptual limitations of the 20th century, no matter how frustrating it may be that those limitations continue to constrain public health policy, in order to advance every individual's opportunity to benefit from nutritional wisdom regarding disease prevention, health maintenance, and the pursuit of human happiness.

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